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Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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ON reflection, we believe that we cannot offer advice better adapted to the circumstances under which a large number of our readers will be placed, than that contained in the following extract. It is the concluding portion of a chapter of the second part, or that on Mineral Waters, of a work by Dr. Bell*—the first and larger part being on the various modes of bathing, and their use in health and disease. The advice is equally applicable to all classes of invalids, whether they visit mineral springs for the purpose of drinking the waters, or trust to travelling and change of scene for the restoration of their health. Even the sojourner at home will find hints which he will not be sorry to apply to his own case.

"It is not expected of me," says Dr. Bell, "in this place, to repeat the prolix instructions given by most writers on bathing and mineral waters, for the guidance of those who wish to avail of these means for the restoration of their health. Sleep, diet, and exercise, ought to be conformable to the respective habits and temperaments, and a residence at springs ought neither to be taxed with privations, nor made subservient to debauchery. The period of sleep ought not to exceed eight hours in any case, and not unfrequently six will be found all-sufficient. That food,

* On Baths and Mineral Waters—in two parts. Part I. a full account of the hygienic and curative powers of *cold, tepid, warm, hot,* and *vapour* baths, and of *sea* bathing. Part II. A history of the chemical composition, and medicinal properties of the chief mineral springs of the United States and of Europe. Philadelphia, 1831—p. p. 532, 12 mo.

which at home was found to be easy of digestion and nutrimental, may be used at the springs; and the invalid must never so far forget himself as to imagine that the mineral water which he drinks will prove an antidote against the poison of the kitchen or the cellar. The exercise may be on foot, horseback, or carriage, according to circumstances: the two first are preferable. Attention to clothing of suitable stuff and thickness, always important in chronic diseases, is doubly so when the sufferers under them are at mineral springs. Sydenham has said, that the fashion of changing the dress with each season killed more persons than gunpowder. If, then, a selection is to be made, and change forbidden, in northern or temperate latitudes, let the invalid and visiter to mineral springs take with him and use his winter garments. On such occasions he will almost invariably find himself in situations where mountains are in the vicinity of deep valleys, and where of course, the air is humid and cool. In fine, we may sum up in a few words, by repeating, after the great Father of Medicine, that all excesses are dangerous: a maxim every one must have fully tested the correctness of. Eating much in the evening, sitting up late, prolonged and immoderate dancing, remaining too long in the cool air of the evening, are often the causes of many unpleasant complaints, which might have been easily prevented. The passions are to be kept in check, by avoiding every exciting cause, either of the boisterous or melancholy kind: a giddy chase after pleasure and luxurious indulgence, are scarcely more reprehensible than an indolent and secluded life. It must, after all, appear ridiculous, in the midst of woods and rocks, to make those sacrifices to fashion, which are barely supportable in a crowded and wealthy capital.

"Without meaning to recommend to all invalids at watering places or mineral springs, an entire abandonment of tea and coffee, I must still be allowed to say, that they would all gain by the measure. To a person of a phlegmatic temperament and sluggish circulation, one not suffering from heat or pain in the stomach nor from much thirst, one or other of these beverages will often not be found objectionable; but if invalids who travel in quest of health and who suffer from palpitation of the heart or dyspepsia, use tea and coffee, or from the diseases of the skin, and use coffee, they must be regarded in the light of persons who consent very solemnly to play the fool with themselves.

"Slow and laborious digestion, heart-burn, disordered state of the kidneys, discoloration of the skin, and some affection of the liver, often the effect of excessive eating and drinking alone, are not to be readily cured by visiting mineral springs, and keeping up the same kind of living. If they, and the remark applies to all invalids, be sincerely desirous of gaining health, they will most successfully do so by simplifying their regimen, and abstain-

ing from all those appliances to force appetite and tickle the taste, which they had formerly used in the shape of ardent spirit, wines, and malt liquors; fried meats and pastry, green and unripe fruits.

"Milk, where it can be taken either pure or diluted with hot water and sweetened, is to be prefered to tea and coffee. Bread a day old, dry toast, or plain water cracker with a little cold butter, is preferable in all cases to hot buttered toast and cakes, fresh bread, rolls, or muffins. Butter, in its natural state highly nutritious, and with many easy of digestion, undergoes, when heated in the different culinary processes, changes which render it frequently as noxious and rancid as oil.

"Jellies, plain pudding of rice, or bread and milk, baked fruits with the omission of the pastry, are light and easy of digestion, and often constitute an important part of the invalid's dinner; but before using too great a variety of these and similar articles, after a meal of more solid food, it may be well to remember the words of the poet:

——— 'The stomach crammed with every dish,
A tomb of roast and boiled, and flesh and fish,
Where bile and wind, and phlegm, and acid jar,
And all the man is one intestine war.'

"Water is the element, wisely offered us by nature, for allaying thirst and diluting our solid food; and the art of man has hitherto been unable to produce any substitute better adapted for the purpose. The only reasonable objection to its use, arises from its occasional hardness and impurity; these, though said to exist much oftener than is really the case, may be easily obviated by previous boiling or distillation.

"It has been very truly remarked by the writer* from whom we have just quoted, 'When the stomach feels heavy or distended after dinner, a cup of good coffee is better calculated to remove these feelings and promote digestion than any quantity of wine, or weak mixture of spirit and water, which has of late been frequently recommended, and is often taken for that purpose: *a tumbler or two of pure spring water is yet more effectual.*'

"But the whole weight of reason, authority, and appeal to the individual's own experience of injury from the practice, ought to be enlisted against heavy or meat suppers. A sufficiency of bread taken at the hour of tea will prevent the necessity of any farther call for food during the same evening. If tea be drunk, rather than milk and water, it will be prudent to add to the former a large proportion of milk—nearly one half. This will be both wholesome at the time, and prevent the gnawing feeling or that of emptiness often experienced after strong tea has been

* Adam Hunter, M. D. On the Mineral Water of Harrowgate. London, 1830.

drunk. At the risk of being denounced as an ascetic, and in the gay and fashionable world the denunciation is a formidable one, I can fearlessly assert, that the person who is troubled with sick headach, and has fears of lying awake at night, will acquire infinitely more pleasureable feelings and sleep sounder after a plain supper, at tea time, of bread, or it may be of bread and butter, with water as the beverage, than after any other kind of repast, whether of tea or coffee, with meats, relishes, &c.

"To say nothing of the uneasy sleep, nightmare, and the like, experienced by the supper eater, and of his greater tendency 'to apoplexy, gout, obesity, scrofula, stone, dropsy, consumption, and similar complaints,' his feelings are any thing but enviable in the morning. Obtuse, compressed pulsation, pain in the head, hot, dry tongue, tainted breath, teeth loaded with sordes, general lassitude, and giddiness amounting sometimes to syncope, are in a greater or less degree his first sensations. The person, on the other hand, who wisely retires to bed without supper, or is at least contented with the repast just mentioned, or if his digestion be not specially impaired, a little bread and milk, or a little plain baked fruit and a glass of water, soon sinks into a calm and undisturbed sleep, awakes next morning refreshed and vigorous, his spirits animated, his head clear, and with a mind and body prompt and active to execute the evening's resolutions, and to undertake the labours of the day.

"'Nothing is more common than to hear persons complain that they have no appetite for *breakfast*. After making the usual condolence upon the weak state of the stomach, it will generally be found, on further inquiry, that they have eaten a *little*, here synonymous with *hearty* supper, drunk a *small* glass or two of wine or spirits after it, gone to bed and slept, or tried to sleep, till the family bell rings them down to breakfast. This requires no comment. To those who rise early, and eat little or no supper, the breakfast is generally a pleasant and ought to be a hearty meal.'

"In comparing the directions given by a French writer with those given by an English one, to visiters to watering places and mineral springs, we cannot help, from the few simple hints by the former, in regard to eating and drinking, and the many specifications of what is to be avoided by the latter, drawing a conclusion that John Bull is a very crapulous kind of body. On the same grounds it is to be feared that brother Jonathan must come in for a share of this compliment; for to a certainty he has some of the oddest notions of regimen for a sick man that could ever be supposed to enter into the mind of a thinking being.

"To the kinds of exercise and general range of amusements I have already adverted. I may add, on the subject of dancing, that if the company at a watering place breaks up at a season-

able hour, and if those who figure away on the floor should use a warm bath before retiring to bed, or at the farthest early next morning, that few objections (I speak now as a physician,) can be made to this pleasing exercise. I do not wish it, however, to be inferred that I recommend dancing as a substitute for other kinds of exercise; but merely as a means of agreeably diverting the attention from little uneasy feelings and of passing off the evening—a period which, without one has the enjoyment of pleasing converse, is apt to give our spirits a sombre hue. If, however, the fine and nervous lady, or feminine dandy cannot venture to expose their faces to the elements during the *day*, it would be very unjust even to themselves, if they were to be allowed to spend four or six hours of the *night* whirling and jumping, which, fashionably rendered, means *waltzing* and *gallopading*.

QUALITIES OF VARIOUS FRUITS.

The *strawberry* when fully ripe is probably one of the most wholesome of our domestic fruits. It is both balsamic and refreshing, says an old writer, and its delicious flavour pleaseth all palates. The strawberry is mildly acid, contains a medium proportion of sugar and of mucilage, and the seeds are neither so numerous or hard as to produce much inconvenience to the stomach or bowels. In some cases, however, especially in children, they have been said to accumulate in the intestines, and occasion alarming disease. This, however, while it should induce caution, need not deter any one in ordinary health from partaking of the fruit. Strawberries have been extolled by some writers as an excellent preventive of gout and gravel, but we entirely disbelieve their possessing any such virtue. Wine, which is much used, especially in Europe, as an accompaniment to strawberries, is injurious to their beneficial qualities, however much it may augment their flavour. Cream and sugar as used with us, are not well adapted to weak stomachs, though they are highly nourishing to the robust, in whom nothing will sooner induce corpulency. As is the case with all other fruits, it is improper to indulge much in eating strawberries after dinner or late in the evening. Contrary to the general rule, the wild strawberry is superior in flavour, though not in size, to the cultivated varieties. *Raspberries* resemble strawberries in most of their qualities; but in flavour are far inferior—to some persons their peculiar taste is decidedly disagreeable. More saccharine and less acid, they will be found to agree, however, with a larger number than strawberries.

The *dewberry* may be considered, also, a very wholesome fruit when fully ripe, and eaten soon after it is plucked from the bush. In general, however, dewberries are more decidedly acid, with tougher skins and larger seed than either of the preceding. They are also more astringent. Taken in moderation, by persons in ordinary health they produce no bad effects—with children they agree better when cooked with sugar.

Among the fruits of the garden we may mention the *gooseberry*. It possesses a due mixture of sugar and acid, but abounds more in mucilage and hard seeds. The skin is, also, astringent, acid, fibrous, and indigestible; in consequence of which it is very apt to irritate the bowels. Gooseberries have been recommended to persons in whom the secretion of bile is deficient, as well as to those liable to diseases of the skin, upon what authority, however, we are not aware.

Unless gooseberries are fully ripe, they should not be eaten—and even then the skins should be rejected. Stewing and baking, with the addition of sugar, however, prove excellent correctors of the crude juices of unripe gooseberries. It is a curious fact, that the green shoots of the rhubarb, which are likewise sub-acid and saccharine, when treated in the same manner, produce a very wholesome dish, which it is difficult to distinguish from baked or stewed gooseberries. In *currants*, particularly black currants, there is a much stronger astringent principle than in any of the preceding fruits; and, consequently, although they contain sugar and mucilage, they prove less laxative than strawberries or gooseberries. The seeds and skin are in a greater degree indigestible, and as these constitute a very large proportion of the imported dried currants of which so large a use is made in various kinds of puddings and confectionary, they must more or less oppress and disorder the stomach and bowels. This should teach us caution and moderation in their use. The plumpest and sweetest should always be preferred.

The same chemical principles, nearly, are contained in *grapes* as in the preceding fruits, with the addition of supertartrite of potash, or cream of tartar; it is this substance which seems to constitute the principal difference between grape wines and all others. Grapes appear also to contain less of the malic acid than the preceding fruits, while they possess a pleasant and aromatic flavour, and many of them a principle of astringency which counteracts in some degree their laxative tendency. The stones and seeds possess this astringent principle very strongly; but it is to be recollected, that so long as they are unbroken, they are, like nearly all other seeds, indigestible. In eating grapes, they should always, together with the skin, be rejected. The large portion of sugar in grapes renders them nutritive,

while in the ordinary state of the stomach, they are readily digested. *Raisins* partake of the nourishing and wholesome qualities of the grapes from which they are prepared; but their skins are rendered tougher by drying, and become, therefore, more indigestible, and the acid is partly dissipated or neutralized, which either increases the quantity of sugar, or renders it more perceptible. The more purple and the less brown there is in the colour of raisins, the better they are to be considered. When eaten, however, in large quantities, or when the stomach is loaded with food, they produce flatulence and colic.

Cherries can hardly be considered so wholesome a fruit as any of the preceding: of their numerous species, which differ in their qualities, some contain a large quantity of water and sugar, which, from being easily fermented, occasion, when taken into the stomach, colic and flatulence; another sort contain a large proportion of water and acid, which though they agree with a robust stomach, disorder the weak, and often occasion sharp pains and other uneasy sensations. The pulpy mucilaginous varieties are the most nutritive. Cherries should always be fully ripe before they are eaten; in general they agree better with the stomach when cooked, than in the raw state. The stones of cherries when imprudently swallowed, sometimes lodge in the bowels and produce dangerous effects. The kernels contain a minute portion of a most deadly poison, prussic acid, and should not be eaten in any quantity.

The chemical elements found in varying proportions in the different kinds of *stone fruits*, are sugar, water, mucilage, acid and woody fibre. Of these fruits the *peach* when fully ripe and mellow, and divested of its outer skin, is the most wholesome and luscious. The kernel of the stone is strongly impregnated with prusic acid, and should be eaten with great caution. *Apricots* are refreshing, wholesome, and somewhat laxative—they are, however, capable of producing great disturbance of the stomach and bowels when eaten in an unripe state.

Plums, unless when fully ripe and mellow, which is best known by the readiness with which the skin ruptures, and the free separation of the pulp from the stone, are injurious to the stomach and bowels; their acerb juices very generally producing colic and gripings. When completely ripe, or plainly cooked with the addition of sugar, they are readily digested and sufficiently wholesome. The *prune*, a species of dried plum, is more difficult of digestion than the recent fruit, when stewed, however, it becomes wholesome and constitutes a very useful laxative. The tough skin and stones of plums should never be swallowed.

EFFECTS OF TRAINING.

PREVIOUSLY to considering the effects produced upon the human body by a proper course of training, it will be proper to notice the regulations in regard to sleep, and the attention to personal cleanliness which are always enjoined upon persons in training, and without an attention to which the full benefit of the course will not be experienced.

In regard to sleep, from seven to eight hours are considered necessary to refresh the body after its daily exercises; and when the system of training pursued is a judicious one, the sleep is always sound, almost unbroken, and consequently its effects are in the highest degree salutary. The individual awakes in the morning with a feeling of alertness and vigour, which is never experienced by those who pass their days in indolence or devote them entirely to sedentary occupations. Persons under training retire to bed early and, as we have already mentioned, re-commence their exercises in the first hours of the morning. Crowded sleeping apartments and soft luxurious couches are to be carefully avoided,

Great cleanliness of person is enjoined in general terms in all the systems of training we have been enabled to consult, but it does not appear that in England, at least, regular bathing is insisted upon with as much stress as its importance undoubtedly deserves. In the Gymnasia of the ancients, whether they were resorted to for the purposes of health, or to prepare the body for the exercises of the public games, bathing at proper intervals was as regularly practised as any of the other items which enter into a regular system of gymnastics. We cannot indeed well see how perfect cleanliness is to be maintained without its regular use. Independently of cleaning the skin effectually from all impurities, the bath exerts a beneficial influence upon the functions of various organs, which aids powerfully in augmenting the health, vigour and developement of the whole system. We cannot enter here into a consideration of the rules to be observed in bathing, nor the temperature of the water adapted to different states of the constitution, for these we refer our readers to Dr. Bell's recent treatise on bathing. We may remark, however, in general, that in training for health the tepid or warm bath will be adapted to a much larger number of cases than the cold bath.

Where bathing cannot be conveniently resorted to, sponging the surface of the whole body with tepid or cold water every morning after rising, following it quickly with brisk friction, will be found an admirable substitute.

Keeping the feet perfectly dry is at all times highly necessary.

In the foregoing sketch of the process of training, we have had reference constantly to the plan pursued in preparing men for wrestling, boxing, and the other vulgar or brutal sports in which the English take so much delight. In these cases the great object is to bring the individuals in as short a time as possible "to the top of their condition," as it is termed. In training for health, however, our object is very different, and consequently the plan will differ in some particulars. The general principles in regard to regulation of diet, daily active exercise in the open air, cleanliness and sleep, will be precisely the same—but some modifications will be necessary in regard to the extent, degree, and sometimes the kind of exercise at first resorted to—the nature and amount of food, &c. By proceeding in this cautious manner, adapting the process in some measure to the capabilities of individual constitutions, the most striking and permanent good will result.

The class of persons to whom a course of training, will be found most beneficial, are those whose constitutions have been debilitated by improper indulgences—sedentary pursuits—or a life of luxurious indolence. Dyspepsia and all its multifarious complications, to which the terms nervous sensations and complaints, have been so long applied, will be found in almost every case to yield to a judicious system of training with very little aid from medicine.

The effects of training on the body are very striking. The appetite is sharpened, and the digestive powers of the stomach so much improved, that all sense of uneasiness and oppression after eating is removed, and the food taken is readily and completely digested.

The chest, in popular language, is rendered stronger; in other words, the individual breathes freely, takes a full inspiration, which is always a sign of good health. The improvement in the condition of the stomach and lungs causes the face to assume a fresher hue; the spirits to be more lively and cheerful, and all the functions of the body to be performed with greater ease and perfection. Persons after training are enabled to draw a deeper inspiration, to hold their breath for a longer period without inconvenience, and to exercise violently without occasioning panting or that sense of constriction which the debilitated so much complain of. The skin under training becomes clear, smooth, fresh coloured and elastic. Even in fat persons, who become reduced in bulk by the process, the skin instead of hanging loosely becomes tight and elastic. The shape of the body is likewise improved; any ungraceful protuberance of the abdomen is reduced. The chest becomes larger and more expanded. The muscles and all those parts which are unduly enlarged, become diminished in size, while those which are preternaturally

small gain an increase of bulk. In fact, as an able writer has correctly remarked, the nature of the human frame is, in a certain sense, totally altered, and in a very short space of time, the form, the character, and the powers of the body are completely changed, from gross to lean, from debility to vigorous health, and thus the very same individual, who but a few months before became giddy and breathless, on the least exertion, has his health not only improved, but is frequently enabled to run many miles, with the fleetness of a grey hound, and to endure a degree of labour which previously would have entirely exhausted his feeble frame.

THE HUMAN SCULL AND FACE.

The following general facts in relation to the human scull and face are from the lectures of Abernethy. We give them in the peculiar style of that distinguished and eccentric surgeon; persuaded that the facts themselves, as well as the manner in which they are related will prove interesting to all our readers.

"There is something to be noticed respecting the general form of the scull. Doctors Hunter and Camper turned their minds to it about the same time, and, I believe, without either knowing the intention of the other. Camper drew a line from the most projecting part of the forehead to the most projecting part of the upper jaw; this he called a *facial* line—this is Camper's facial line. Now if we draw another line through this in a horizontal manner, so far as to pass from the base of the nose along the opening of the ear, we will then have an angle;—the two lines will have nearly all the brain between them: and the greater the angle, of course, the larger the brain. Here is the skull of an African—the angle you see is very small—the forehead goes back—the facial line recedes more and more from the perpendicular towards the horizontal line. Here is a different sort of scull, where the lines intersect each other at nearly right angles. In this way Camper distinguished between varieties of mankind and of animals. I have been sometimes talking to artists over those specimens of statues left us by the ancients. What is the reason that we see in them something that always fascinates, at the same time that we find every thing exaggerated in them? The ancients did exaggerate in their statues: but then there was so much delicacy, so much grace in their exaggeration that you did not see it, but you were fascinated—their foreheads for instance. Look at them, and you see them coming forward—they overhang the rest of the face. You see they do not shelve away—they are broad and expanded. Animals, the brutes,

have scarcely any foreheads; the monkey's forehead, you see, recedes: and here is the dog's forehead—it falls back completely. The ancients, therefore, with reason, gave a full projecting forehead to their statues, to dignify them—to mark as it were, the striking difference there is between man and other animals. Now the *eyebrow* is quite peculiar to man—no other animal has it,—mark that. What did the ancients do? Why they laboured that part of the human countenance with extraordinary care, for it is a part, that is in a peculiar manner, adapted to convey expression. The *eyes* too, they managed in the same way. Some of the inferior animals have their eyes so brought forward on the surface of their faces that they can see sideways: they can see around them and even behind them. That's the case with the hare—the poor timid animal can see behind him; and so constantly does he keep looking backwards when pursued, that he will rush upon an obstacle right before him; and, as sometimes happens in the chase, will absolutely break his neck by the force with which he rushes against it. Now this looking sideways and about one, is the sign of a suspicious, apprehensive, anxious disposition. The ancients knew this, and what did they do? They gave to the faces of their statues eyes that looked straightly and directly upon you—that look directly forward; and they did this in order to convey to the beholder the fact that the originals felt the very reverse of timidity, of apprehension, and of suspicion. Then the *nose*. Man has a peculiar one: it has a bridge to it; all other animals want the nose as it is in man. These animals, instead of a nose, have a *snout*—it's a snout, not a nose. Now the ancients in their heads attended greatly to the nose: you will find they placed the bridge of it very high in the face; they placed it above the centre of the orbit of the eyes. The Greeks brought the nose straight down—the Romans gave it a bend upwards—they arched it, thinking that to be the handsomest form; but this is all matter of taste. The *nostrils* they made as little like a snout as possible. In the statues of the ancients you see the mouth made in a peculiar way; it is, so to speak, as little like a devouring aperture as possible. It is, however, an aperture, and that they very well knew; but they also knew it was made for articulating—for expressing thoughts by language; and they made it as expressive as they could. The *lips* were made muscular and strong. Brutes, we find, have no *chins*—that is a part of the face peculiar to man. The ancients were very particular about it, and formed it large and expressive. Now, if you could put all these features on paper, as I have described them, you would have the countenance of Jupiter Olympus himself. The ancients, however, did not give the same face to all their statues; it is quite true what Dr. Spurzheim said of them, that they knew much

better than to place the head of a philosopher upon the shoulders of a gladiator."

HOW TO WEAR SPECTACLES.

The usual practice, when an individual experiences a diminution or defect in his powers of vision, is to have recourse immediately to the aid of spectacles. Paying, in the majority of cases, no attention to the actual condition of the eyes, by which the imperfection of vision is produced, nor inquiring whether it may not be such a one as will be aggravated by the use of glasses, it is not at all surprising that we find so many complain of the rapid deterioration of their sight after commencing to wear spectacles. But this is not all—the glasses made use of are often unadapted in the nature of their lenses to the state of the eye; are more often defective in their construction, and when otherwise correct, are not unfrequently worn in a manner calculated rather to injure still more the eyes than to increase the powers of sight. The following directions for wearing spectacles are from the work of Adams, and are well worth the attention of all who are obliged to have recourse to their aid.

In the proper use of spectacles there is no circumstance of more importance than their position on the head. They should be worn so that the glasses may come as close to the eye as possible without touching the eyelashes; they should also be so placed that the surface of the glasses may be *parallel* to the object viewed when this is held in an easy position. To accomplish this, let the sides of the spectacles bear upon the swell of the head, about midway between the top of it and the ear; the eyes will then look *directly* through the glasses to the object, and will derive the most advantage from them; instead of looking *obliquely* through them, as in those cases, where, as is too commonly the case, persons place the sides of their spectacles in contact with, or very near, their ears—in which condition they cause a distorted image of the object viewed to be produced on the sensitive coat of the eye. The sides of the spectacles should, also, be placed at an *equal height* upon the head—and the hands being applied to the *points* of the sides, will generally direct their equal height, as well as allow of their opening to their full extent without injury.

We may here remark, that the habit, too often assumed by young persons of both sexes, from affectation, of viewing objects through a single glass, the quizzing glass, as it has been fashionably termed, is decidedly injurious to the eyes. What is worse, like the acquired relish for ardent spirits or for tobacco, the evil

grows by indulgence:—after using a glass but slightly convex or concave, for a short time, the effect produced upon the eye is such that to produce the same degree of vision, glasses more and more convex or concave are required. This was clearly proved by the observations of Mr. Ware at the English universities, where it became fashionable for all to make use of these ridiculous and destructive glasses.

"It was very common, at one period, for persons who had, or were fearful of having, weak eyes, to wear plain glasses of a green or blue colour; and the practice is still followed by many individuals. A more effectual mode of weakening the eyes could scarcely be conceived; the obscurity produced by the diminished transparency of the glass, causing the eyes to strain themselves whenever any thing is looked at with attention; the eyes are in this manner even more fatigued and injured than when exposed unshaded to the light. The injury is farther increased by the bright points of reflected light from the silver frame, from the angular position of the glasses, or from the refraction of the light caused by inequality in their thickness."

CHOLERA ALARMISTS.

THERE are a set of folks amongst us, some of them having the direction of newspaper presses, who think they are pursuing a very heroic course by putting themselves in opposition to the experience and judgment of medical men, and by crying out that the cholera is contagious. Totally ignorant themselves of the history of the disease, and unfitted by education to sift the evidence brought forward in the case, and to separate vulgar errors from carefully and judiciously recorded facts, they assume their opinions to be the standard, and very modestly intimate that medical men are prejudiced because they will not, in despite of their better judgments, join in the outcry of the contagiousness of cholera. If these alarmists would consent to be admonished a little, we could tell them that their conduct is not only senseless, but cruel, by agitating people's minds with excessive fear—a fear which does not lead to caution, but which is, on the contrary, opposed to some of the best devised measures for the relief of those who may eventually be sufferers from the disease. If the true nature of the origin of cholera be set before the public, as we have at different times done in this Journal, all suitable preventive and precautionary measures will be adopted and attended to. Let the notion of contagion prevail, and what will be the result? All intercourse between a sickly and a healthy city is stopped—hundreds and thousands are thrown out of employment without means of support—they are huddled together in crowds, and idleness in them is apt to be succeeded by excesses of various kinds, especially that most destructive of all, indulgence in the use of ardent spirits. The wives and children of these men, depen-

dent as they were for their daily bread on the labour of the latter, now suffer from want of food—of course are more prone to receive the attacks of disease. Nor is this all—the minds of this class of people depressed by want, and their ignorant fears worked on by the alarmists, they are thrown into such a state of utter prostration as to render them not only subjects for disease, but also to place them in a great measure beyond the reach of medicine. How can we impress upon people's minds the necessity of cleanliness in their houses and persons, and of removing all filth and offensive matter from their yards, if we tell them that those measures are to prevent a contagious disease? Should we encourage them to have recourse to free ventilation, might they not express their fears that the wind would be the bearer of contagion from a city, or a house, in the direction from which the wind blew? But if after all, say these alarmists, the disease should prove to be contagious?—What answer can we make to those who shut their eyes and ears and forego the privilege of reasoning beings, to cling to their first impressions? We can only reply by supposing a case as probable as the one they advocate. If a comet should come near enough to this earth, and give us a switch of its tail—what then? The comet will not come near enough, says a common sense man. Then we say, the cholera has not been, and is not contagious, and will not be contagious, should it appear amongst us. It was at one time thought and believed by many good souls in the town of Salem, that an invisible and impalpable fluid darted from the eye of a witch, and penetrated the brain of the bewitched. Perhaps some may yet incline to this belief, and we think we hear them request that philosophers and people of discernment, generally, should lay aside their prejudices, and reason the affair with them, so as to settle the question With equal plausibility and modesty, may those who are ignorant of medicine and of medical inquiries, and medical evidence, ask physicians to forego their prejudices, that is the conclusions to which they have been led—that the cholera is not contagious; and to try and shape their creed according to the whims of these amateur alarmists.

But these alarmists are also found in the medical profession—they have even been influential enough (and the task was not difficult, considering the leaning of the great and little vulgar to the side of contagion) to have quarantines rigidly enforced, and all intercourse between places prevented. Medical gossip has been, on these occasions, found too strong for medical logic—and what have been the results? Let Dr. Granville speak of the measures of the English Board of Health. We give his own language as contained in his Catechism on Cholera.*

Q. What had the Board promised to the public, the non-fulfilment of which could lead to such a disappointment?

A. The Board in their manifesto, the government in their orders in council, Sir Gilbert Blane in his warning to the British public, and, last and *most*,

* We always deem the cause of science to be paramount to all personal considerations; and hence refer to Dr. Granville's present views, with pleasure, although we have just cause of complaint at his plagiarism in copying without acknowledgment the American Catechism of Health, and calling it his own work.

the Quarterly Review in their archi-absurd articles contained in the 91st number, had led the public to believe that if the quarantine laws were strictly enforced, the disease would not appear amongst us. Now the quarantine laws were strictly enforced in the port of Sunderland, to the great inconvenience of their trade, and had never, as it has since been officially asserted, been infringed; yet cholera in its worst form made its appearance in that town, destroying its victims in the same frightful proportion in which the same malady was destroying them on the neighbouring coast of the continent, and with precisely the same symptoms.

Q. What led the Board to make such a promise, which has got them into so awkward a scrape?

A. A first and fatal error: that of supposing that severe and fatal cholera had never existed until it showed itself in India, in 1817; whereas even upon that point they are wrong, since the same disorder was described as fatally prevalent in the hospitals of Madras ten years before, under the vulgar and awful name of "*mort-de chien*," (dogs-death, from the acute suffering of the patient:) and a second still more fatal error, that of supposing the disease to possess the character of the plague, and of being transmitted from one place to another through the agency of man or merchandise, in order to account for its successive developement in various parts of Asia and Europe. Thus did these physicians reason: The cholera took its rise at the mouth of the Ganges; it went to China on the one side, and to Persia on the other; from thence to Russia, Poland, Austria, and Prussia. It is now at Hamburg, and if you do not prevent men and goods from being introduced into this country, from that city, or any other, where the cholera may be raging, the disease will be introduced along with them. What has happened? The introduction of men and goods were prevented, but not the appearance of the disease.

Q. What are we to conclude from that striking fact?

A. That the cholera is not a *contagious* disorder, but an *epidemic* one: that it is not a transmitted malady, but one spontaneously evolved in the countries in which it has raged, and likely to do so in Holland, France, Italy, and other countries hitherto free from it, in the course of the next two years.

Q. I wish you would enable me, by some simple explanation, fully to comprehend the meaning of the two words you have just used—contagious and epidemic?"

[Omitting the illustration of a contagious disease in the plague, we pass on to that part of the answer concerning an epidemic disease.]

"A family is taken ill at a particular season of the year with any known disease. Another family or person is soon afterwards similarly affected: and many more follow under the same circumstances, until the greater part of the inhabitants of a town or district have, more or less, experienced the same morbid influence on their system. The same occurrence may take place in a prison—a camp—an hospital—a manufactory—a ship:—the disease goes through its various stages, often unchecked by any effort that can be made to extinguish it. It disappears at last, and for a time, generally indefinite, does not occur again; or it re-appears at uncertain epochs: or another disease takes its place, following the same course, affecting equally the greater number of the inhabitants of the place or district where it appears, and terminating at last in the same manner. A catarrh is known to have affected, at particular epochs, two thirds of the inhabitants of a town. Carli, in his History of Verona, observes, that this disease had been so prevalent in 1438, that it overran the whole of Italy, and was principally fatal to children and old people. The influenza which prevailed in London in the year 1782 was of this class. The croup, the hooping-cough, &c. are known to make their appearance, some years, in particular places, where they at-

tack indiscriminately many individuals. The former became so prevalent in some of the French provinces about the years 1809 and 1810, that Bonaparte offered a premium of 12,000 francs for the best treatise on that disease. An old physician, Sennertus, states, that a particular malignant fever with spasm afflicted the bishoprics of Cologne and Westphalia in 1596-7. While Mantua was beseiged by the French army in 1796, upwards of 25,000 citizens and soldiers perished from a peculiar fever: yet after the French army entered that town, no case of that disease occurred, either amongst the inhabitants or the garrison. We read in the History of France, by Mezerai, that a peculiar sort of cough, with fever, attacked generally and indiscriminately all the old people in Paris, during the months of February and March, 1414, and that the name of *coqueluche* was given to it from a particular cap called *coqueluchon*, used to keep off the cold air so pernicious in this complaint: nearly the same with that which has since appeared in Paris, called *Le Gripe*, which is reported to have affected 140.000 inhabitants. During the siege of Genoa in 1799, a petechial fever prevailed among the garrison and the inhabitants, the greatest part of whom felt its bad effects: some parts of the town seemed more exposed to the influence of the disease than others, and a very limited residence in those parts was sufficient to develope the disease in a healthy individual. The same occurred a few years later at Leghorn—and again at Malaga; in both which places, sleeping one night only in the town was followed by the disease. The fever which has been called the *typhus*, followed both in England and Ireland, in 1817 and 1818, the same course. Particular districts of a town, and even particular parts of the same house, seemed more liable to the developement of the disease than others. The same is recorded of those febrile complaints which have prevailed in some parts of America within the last twenty years. Such again is not the history of contagious, but of EPIDEMIC diseases."

Quarantine and sanitary cordons, were found of no avail in Russia, Prussia, or Austria.—They did not keep off the disease from Astrachan, St. Petersburg, Dantzic, Berlin, Breslaw, Vienna, Hamburg, &c. &c. Let us be benefitted by these examples, and not imitate in the United States these cruel restrictions, more calculated to produce than to ward off the dreaded evil.

"It is clear and open to every inquirer," says Lefevre, in his observations on the disease at St. Petersburg, "that the Cholera did not occur in many places which had the greatest intercourse with Petersburg at the height of the malady, and that it broke out in many others which have been subjected to the strictest quarantines."

THE HEALTH ALMANAC for 1833, will be published and ready for sale to the trade, on the 1st of July next, by *Key, Mielke, and Biddle.*

Thomas Desilver, jr. Market street, has in press and will speedily publish, a History of the *Epidemic Cholera*, and the means of preventing the disease; being a Report of the *College of Physicians* of Philadelphia, to the *Board of Health* of the same city: to which is added a full account of the *Symptoms* and *Seats* of the disease, and the *Method of Treatment* adopted in the different countries in which the Cholera has prevailed.—By John Bell, M. D. and D. F. Condie, M. D.

PAYMENT.

☞ALL persons indebted for this Journal, are requested to make immediate payment to the subscriber, as assignee of H. H. Porter, the former publisher.

May 23, 1832. S. POTTER, No. 27, Minor street.